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COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

Vol. XIII, No. 9

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN

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Educational Research Bulletin
DECEMBER 12, 1934
Vol. XIII, No. 9

Ohio County High Schools in 1929–30 and 1933–34

By T. C. HOLY

In the Educational Research Bulletin of October 22, 1930, the writer had an article entitled "The Distribution of County High Schools," in which were pointed out the three types of high schools provided for by Ohio statutes, that is, the first-grade high school, which normally requires four years beyond the eighth grade, and high schools of the second and third grade which normally require three and two years, respectively, beyond the eighth grade.[1] The director of education has authority to classify high schools and issue certificates:

> He shall issue certificates of grade to such high schools when their ratings are determined after inspection and such shall be the grades of such schools until the grade is changed or certificate revoked after a subsequent inspection or evident failure to meet standards.[2]

The article further pointed out that the Ohio statutes provide for the following types of school districts: "The school districts of the State shall be styled, respectively, city school districts, exempted-village school districts, village school districts, rural school districts, and county school districts."[3] The last three of these are under the jurisdiction of the county superintendent, and constitute the county school system. In 1927–28, there were 2,151 school districts in the state, while in 1933–34 the number had been reduced to 2,033.

It is the purpose of this article to compare the types of organization and distribution according to enrollment of high schools in county school districts for the years 1929–30 and 1933–34,

[1] Ohio. *Ohio School Laws.* Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education, 1928. p. 335, Sec. 7652.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 334, Sec. 7651.
[3] Ohio. *Ohio High School Standards.* Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education, 1929. p. 32

the data in both cases being taken from the *Ohio Educational Directory* annually prepared by the State Department of Education. These high schools, it should be observed, are those found in the county school system, which includes 1,872, or 92 per cent, of the 2,033 school districts in the state.

Before taking up the discussion of the county high schools, the distribution of all public high schools in the state according to types of organization for the two years is presented in Table I. It will be noted from these figures that during the four-year

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE STATE ACCORDING TO TYPES OF ORGANIZATION

TYPE OF SCHOOL	1929–30		1933–34	
	Number	Percentage of Total	Number	Percentage of Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
First-grade four-year county high schools	659	50	546	42
First-grade four-year high schools in city and exempted-village school districts	104	8	111	8
Second- and third-grade county high schools	140	11	89	7
First-grade six-year county high schools	211	16	330	25
First-grade six-year high schools in city and exempted-village school districts	50	4	71	5
Junior high schools in county school districts	17	1	10	.....[a]
Junior high schools in city and exempted-village school districts	102	8	118	9
Senior high schools in county school districts	2	.....[a]	0	0
Senior high schools in city and exempted-village school districts	33	2	39	3
Total	1,318	100	1,314	100

[a] Less than 1 per cent.

period, the six-year high schools have increased from 211 to 330 in the county school districts, and from 50 to 71 in the cities and exempted villages. In other words, six-year high schools as recognized by the State Department of Education increased in Ohio from 261 in 1929–30 to 401 in 1933–34, an increase of 54 per cent during the four-year period. In this connection, an excerpt from the Foreword of one of the reports of the National Survey of Secondary Education is interesting:

> Schools of various organizations and various sizes and types are measured by these two standards (comprehensiveness and consistency of organization). In general it is found that the 3-3 junior-senior high

school organization is to be preferred to any other type although in the smaller schools the 6-year undivided school is a little the better.[4]

THE distribution of county four-year high schools according to enrollment for the two years studied is shown in Table II. During this four-year period the number of schools of this

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF FIRST-GRADE FOUR-YEAR COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS ON THE BASIS OF ENROLLMENT FOR 1929–30 AND 1933–34

ENROLLMENT	NUMBER		PERCENTAGE OF FIRST-GRADE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS	
	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10– 19	3	1	[a]	[a]
20– 29	14	6	2	1
30– 39	46	24	7	4
40– 49	81	41	12	7
50– 59	93	72	14	13
60– 69	74	55	11	10
70– 79	68	51	10	9
80– 89	53	42	8	8
90– 99	40	39	6	7
100–109	27	39	4	7
110–119	27	24	4	4
120–129	21	25	3	5
130–139	19	22	3	4
140–149	13	12	2	2
150–159	16	15	2	3
160–169	13	14	2	3
170–179	10	10	2	2
180–189	2	9	[a]	2
190–199	3	3	[a]	[a]
200 and above	36	42	6	8
Total	659	546	100	100
Median	73	86	.....	.....

[a] Less than 1 per cent.

type decreased from 659 to 546, a decrease of 17 per cent, while the median enrollment increased from 73 to 86. No doubt the decrease in the number of this type in a large measure was due to the increase in the six-year high school. It is interesting to note that the number of schools in this group with enrollments

[4] National Survey of Secondary Education. *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1933. p. xi. (United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 5).

of less than 50 was reduced from 144 to 72, a decrease of 50 per cent during the four-year period, while the number with enrollments of less than 100 was reduced from 472 to 331, a decrease of 30 per cent during the same period.

Table III shows the comparative information on first-grade six-year high schools in county districts. During the four-year period this type increased in number from 211 to 330, an increase of 56 per cent, and the median enrollment increased from

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF FIRST-GRADE SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS IN COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICTS FOR 1929–30 AND 1933–34

ENROLLMENT	NUMBER		PERCENTAGE OF FIRST-GRADE SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS	
	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34
	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
40– 59	.....	3	.....	1
60– 79	10	3	5	1
80– 99	21	14	10	4
100–119	23	47	11	14
120–139	38	41	18	12
140–159	32	35	15	11
160–179	20	40	10	12
180–199	12	33	6	10
200–219	13	25	6	8
220–239	7	16	3	5
240–259	15	11	7	3
260–279	5	15	2	5
280–299	3	11	1	3
300–319	3	7	1	2
320 and above	9	29	4	9
Total	211	330	99	100
Median	149	173	.....	.....

149 to 173 during the period. This type of school, especially those of smaller enrollments in which separate junior high-school organizations are not feasible, has several advantages. Among these are broader opportunities for exploration for seventh- and eighth-grade pupils than are offered in the elementary school, better trained teachers, better utilization of the high-school plant and equipment, and increased holding power, due, in part, to the transfer from the elementary to the high school at the end of the sixth rather than at the end of the eighth grade. Because of the advantages, the State Department

of Education has been and is favorable toward this type in the county school districts.

Table IV shows the comparison of second- and third-grade high schools for the two years. It will be recalled that the courses in these two types of high schools are three and two years in length, respectively. In general, then, those who complete the courses offered in the second-grade high school must attend high school elsewhere for one year before graduation, while those who complete the courses of the third-grade high school must attend high school elsewhere for two years. Con-

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF SECOND- AND THIRD-GRADE HIGH SCHOOLS IN COUNTY DISTRICTS FOR 1929–30 AND 1933–34

ENROLLMENT	NUMBER		PERCENTAGE OF SECOND- AND THIRD-GRADE HIGH SCHOOLS	
	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34
	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5– 9	4	2	3	2
10–14	13	1	9	1
15–19	27	9	19	10
20–24	23	12	16	13
25–29	15	18	11	20
30–34	22	13	16	15
35–39	11	14	8	16
40–44	13	9	9	10
45–49	2	2	1	2
50 and above	10	9	7	10
Total	140	89	99	99
Median	26	31	.....	.....

cerning the payment of tuition for attendance elsewhere, the statutes make the following provision:

> A board of education providing a third grade high school shall be required to pay the tuition of graduates from such school, and of other children who have completed successfully two years of work in a recognized high school, residing in the district, at a first grade high school for two years, or at a second grade high school for one year and at a first grade high school for one additional year. A board providing a second grade high school shall pay the tuition of graduates, and of other children of like advancement, residing in the district at a first grade high school for one year.[5]

[5] Ohio. *Ohio School Laws*, p. 388, Sec. 7748.

During the four-year period the number of high schools in the second and third grade was reduced from 140 to 89, while the median enrollment for the same period increased from 26 to 31. According to the standards prepared by the State Department of Education, the minimum number of teachers required for a second-grade high school is two, and for a third-grade high school, one. The number of teachers employed in these two types of schools and the number of pupils accomodated therein are relatively insignificant in terms of the total secondary-education program in Ohio.

In addition to the types of schools already discussed, there were in 1929–30, 17 junior high-school organizations in the county school districts, which number had been reduced to 9 in 1933–34. Also, in 1929–30 there were two senior high schools in the county school system, both of which had disappeared as such by 1933–34. Because of the small numbers their distributions according to enrollment have been omitted.

THE foregoing tables have dealt with the total situation with respect to high schools in the county school districts. In order to see the situation in each county in terms of number and types of high-school organization in the two years included in the study, Table V, showing this information by counties, is presented. Since, as already noted, there were but two senior high schools listed in 1929–30 and none in 1933–34, that column has been omitted in this table. The fewest number of high schools by counties is found in Fayette County in both 1929–30 and 1933–34, while the largest number for both years is in Trumbull County. Other counties having 7 high schools or less for either or both years are: Auglaize, Columbiana, Erie, Huron, Jackson, Lake, Meigs, Morgan, Ottawa, Pike, Sandusky, Vinton, and Williams. Counties which had 18 or more high schools in either or both of the two years are: Ashtabula, Licking, Lorain, Portage, Stark, Trumbull, and Wood. The counties in which the largest decrease occurred in the number of high schools during the four-year period are: Guernsey, which reduced from 15 to 11; Meigs, from 10 to 6; Montgomery, from 17 to 12; Muskingum, from 16 to 12; Vinton, from 9 to 6; and Washington, from 15 to 11. The counties which had more high schools in 1933–34 than in 1929–30 are: Hamilton, Marion, Ottawa, Pike, Summit, and Tuscarawas. The total

number of high schools of all types in county school districts decreased from 1,029 in 1929–30 to 973 in 1933–34, a decrease in number of 56. During this same period, the total high-school enrollment in county school districts increased from 99,769 to 123,355, an increase of 23,586, or 24 per cent. This large increase is reflected in the median enrollment, which for first-grade four-year schools increased from 73 to 86, first-grade six-year schools from 149 to 173, and second- and third-grade high schools from 26 to 31.

Many studies have been made of the per-pupil cost of operation in large and small high schools, most of which have shown that the small schools are more expensive and generally less effective in instruction. In the county school districts the roads are an important factor in consolidation because transportation necessarily is involved.

In 1929, 66 per cent of the eighty-five thousand miles of state, county, and township roads were improved with gravel, macadam, or better means of hard surfacing.[6] This proportion in December, 1933, had increased to 71 per cent.[7] It is a matter of record that Ohio has one of the best systems of highways in the United States.

When these two significant factors, along with others which might be mentioned, are considered, it appears that the reduction in the total number of high schools in county districts was rather small, especially during a period (1929–30 to 1933–34) which was characterized by many efforts toward economies in order to keep the schools open. The writer would be inclined to that conclusion, had he not had first-hand experience in meeting the objections of local communities to the proposed elimination of small schools even though it can be definitely shown that such elimination will effect a considerable saving and that the pupils will have added advantages in the schools to which they would be taken. Furthermore, this opposition is more pronounced in the case of high schools than elementary schools. There seems to be a deep-seated belief that the loss of a high school is a calamity from which the community will not recover, and to escape this it is willing to make any sacrifice. Experience in communities where small high schools have been closed, of course, has not borne out that belief.

[6] Ohio Institute. "A Preliminary Analysis of Rural and Village School District Systems of Ohio." Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Institute, 1929. p. 21.

[7] This figure furnished by the State Highway Department.

TABLE V

Comparison of High Schools by Counties in 1929–30 and 1933–34

County	First-Grade Four-Year		Second- and Third-Grade		First-Grade Six-Year		Total[c]	
	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Adams	7	4	1	1	1	4	9	9
Allen	6	6	2	2	2	2	10	10
Ashland	8	6	3	2	1	3	12	11
Ashtabula	10	11	9	10	.....	.....	21	21
Athens	10	3	2	2	2	7	14	12
Auglaize	7	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	7
Belmont	9	9	2	.....	.....	.....	11	9
Brown	10	6	.....	.....	1	4	11	10
Butler	12	4	2	.....	.....	9	14	13
Carroll	5	6	5	2	.....	1	10	9
Champaign	10	8	2	1	.....	3	12	12
Clark	4	8	.....	.....	8	4	16	15
Clermont	7	4	1	.....	2	6	10	10
Clinton	10	6	.....	.....	1	5	11	11
Columbiana	4	5	3	1	.....	.....	7	6
Coshocton	4	6	11	9	.....	.....	15	15
Crawford	2	1	.....	.....	8	9	10	10
Cuyahoga	.....	.....	.....	.....	16[a]	14	16[a]	14
Darke	10	9	1	1	1	2	12	12
Defiance	8	8	1	1	.....	.....	9	9
Delaware	10	8	.....	.....	2	4	12	12
Erie	7	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	7
Fairfield	4	2	.....	.....	8	9	12	11
Fayette	4	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4
Franklin	7	4	.....	.....	5	7	12	11
Fulton	2	3	1	.....	6	6	9	9
Gallia	7	3	1	2	1	4	9	9
Geauga	11	9	2	2	.....	2	13	13
Greene	3	.....	.....	.....	6	8	9	8
Guernsey	9	10	6	1	.....	.....	15	11
Hamilton	9	7	3	2	1	5	13	14
Hancock	7	7	.....	.....	2	2	9	9
Hardin	5	4	1	.....	4	5	10	9
Harrison	7	6	4	4	.....	.....	11	10
Henry	6	6	.....	.....	3	3	9	9
Highland	8	7	1	.....	1	2	10	9
Hocking	11	5	.....	.....	.....	3	11	8
Holmes	9	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	9	8
Huron	4	4	.....	.....	3	3	7	7
Jackson	3	3	.....	.....	2	2	5	5
Jefferson	7	6	2	2	3	5	13	13
Knox	7	6	3	2	.....	1	10	9

TABLE V *(Continued)*

County	First-Grade Four-Year		Second- and Third-Grade		First-Grade Six-Year		Total[c]	
	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Lake	2	3	.....	.....	5	4	7	7
Lawrence	5	5	3	1	7	7	15	13
Licking	10	12	2	1	6	4	18	17
Logan	1	1	.....	.....	12	12	13	13
Lorain	16	10	1	.....	1	8	18	18
Lucas	7	6	3	2	1	3	12	12
Madison	9	8	.....	.....	.....	1	9	9
Mahoning	13	5	1	2	.....	7	14	14
Marion	7	9	1	2	4	2	12	13
Medina	5	4	.....	.....	8	9	14	14
Meigs	5	5	4	.....	1	1	10	6
Mercer	6	6	3	3	1	1	10	10
Miami	9	7	.....	.....	2	3	12	11
Monroe	11	12	1	.....	.....	.....	12	12
Montgomery	8	5	.....	.....	6	7	17	12
Morgan	6	6	1	.....	.....	1	7	7
Morrow	6	3	2	2	1[a]	5	10	10
Muskingum	10	7	3	.....	3	5	16	12
Noble	10	9	1	2	.....	.....	11	11
Ottawa	3	3	1	1	2	2	6	7
Paulding	5	6	1	1	2	1	8	8
Perry	8	2	2	1	2	8	12	11
Pickaway	13	9	.....	.....	.....	4	13	13
Pike	2	.....	.....	.....	3	6	5	6
Portage	5	4	7	4	10	12	22	21
Preble	8	7	.....	.....	4	5	12	12
Putnam	9	9	3	2	2	3	14	14
Richland	9	8	.....	.....	1	2	10	10
Ross	10	4	1	.....	.....	7	11	11
Sandusky	4	2	.....	.....	2	4	6	6
Scioto	8	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	8	8
Seneca	5	7	1	.....	3	2	9	9
Shelby	5	5	2	1	1	2	8	8
Stark	10	8	3	.....	6	9	19	17
Summit	15	15	.....	.....	1	1	16	17
Trumbull	11	5	.....	1	14	19	26	25
Tuscarawas	10	10	3	3	.....	1	13	14
Union	10	10	5	5	.....	.....	15	15
Van Wert	7	7	.....	.....	2	2	9	9
Vinton	6	5	2	.....	.....	1	9	6
Warren	7	8	2	.....	.....	.....	9	8
Washington	9	5	2	.....	3	6	15	11
Wayne	15	14	1	1	1	1	17	16

TABLE V *(Continued)*

County	First-Grade Four-Year		Second- and Third-Grade		First-Grade Six-Year		Total[c]	
	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34	1929–30	1933–34
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Williams	7	4	1	1	1	2	9	7
Wood	14	15	6	5	5	4	25	24
Wyandot	9	7	1	1	.....	1	10	9
Totals[b]	660	546	139	89	213	329	1,029	973

[a] This includes one senior high school which was in operation in 1929–30.

[b] These totals in this table do not quite agree with those given in the previous tables, due to differences of interpretation of some of the directory materials.

[c] There are fourteen counties in which the sums of the numbers given in Columns 2, 4, 6, and in Columns 3, 5, and 7 do not equal the total given in Column 8 and in Column 9 due to the inclusion of junior high schools, numbering not more than four in any county.

The State Department of Education has had, and still has, as its goal the maximum amount of education at the minimum cost. To that end continued effort has been made to eliminate certain small schools where efficiency and economy can be served by so doing. Because of this strong initial opposition, progress has been slow. During the year 1933–34, however, high-school charters in 17 high schools have been revoked, effective at the opening of school in 1934–35. What is needed next is a carefully formulated school plan for each county in which will be outlined estimates of future population, both total and school, together with its distribution, probable industrial and agricultural development, a plan for redistricting, an appraisal of the school plant and its present use, buildings which should ultimately be eliminated, suggested location of new buildings, highway program, transportation plans, and other essential factors in good planning. This has already been done by the State Department in a few counties. It is hoped that their efforts in co-operation with the newly organized State Planning Board, county boards of education, local school officials, and other interested agencies may soon bring about such a comprehensive plan covering the entire state.

How College Differs from High School

By W. H. COWLEY

Two years ago a pamphlet, *Preparing for College*, was prepared by Ohio State University. As a state university, required by law to accept all graduates from first-grade high schools of the state, it has for many years been apparent that a close co-ordination should exist between the high schools of the state and its institutions of higher education. This pamphlet was written in order to help high-school students more intelligently to plan for college work.

Since the publication of the pamphlet several thousand copies have been distributed individually and in bulk to students. Already some of the Freshmen entering this fall have acknowledged indebtedness to the generalizations contained in the pamphlet. Some have talked of having learned how to study more effectively, how to choose their college courses, and how, in general, to prepare themselves better for college success. The pamphlet contains five chapters as follows: "Who Should Go to College," "What Makes for College Success," "How to Study," "Choosing Your College Course," and "What Ohio State University Does to Help Students Succeed."

In planning for a revision of this booklet it seemed wise to include a new chapter entitled "How College Differs from High School." This chapter might have been written a priori, but with more than two thousand students in our freshman class specific information could readily be attained from the students themselves. The writer, therefore, with the co-operation of the English Department, has secured the opinions of more than six hundred first-year students about how, in their judgment, college work and college life differ from their experiences in high school. Each of these six hundred Freshmen was asked to write a theme on this general topic. No suggestions of any sort were given to them concerning what they should write. They were merely asked to limit their essays to about five hundred words.

These pieces of writing were turned over for analysis and tabulation to the Bureau of Educational Research. The results are now available and are presented herewith. Table I summarizes the judgments of students concerning study problems,

brings together information concerning student-instructor relations, tabulates students' opinions concerning social life, and includes a number of miscellaneous items.

Information of this sort will be helpful to Ohio State University, not only in its revision of its "How to Study" bulletin,

TABLE I

STUDY PROBLEMS

Statement	Percentage of Total	Statement	Percentage of Total
(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)
Study Problems:		Social Life:	
Assignments larger	21	Wider contacts	14
More time required for study	10	More extra-curricular activities	14
Emphasis on thinking rather than on information	9	Less supervision of daily affairs	10
Greater variety of subjects taught	9	More social activities	10
Grading more severe	8	Fraternities and sororities make for more social life	9
Courses more intensive	8	Dormitory or rooming house a great change from home life	5
Note-taking an essential	7	One knows fewer people intimately	5
Choice of courses left to student	6	City life strange to small-town students	3
Grading on basis of quizzes, midterms, and finals rather than on daily recitation	4	Popular high-school Senior finds himself an unimportant Freshman	2
More outside reading required	4	Confronted with necessity of making new friends	2
Competition for high marks keener	3	Contacts with more mature students	2
Student-Instruction Relationships:		Miscellaneous:	
Student not forced or cajoled into doing his work	28	Greater cost than in high school	18
Less individual attention	17	Student has more responsibilities	18
Lecture-quiz method differs from high-school method	13	Budgeting expenditures a new problem	16
Lack of social intercourse between student and instructor	13	Time distribution a greater problem	11
Attendance not compulsory	9	Greater emphasis on athletics	4
Instructors better informed	6	More free time during day	3
Student considered mature	6		
Better instructors	5		
Classes much larger	4		

but also in planning more effectively for the orientation of students upon their arrival on the campus and during their freshman year. It is hoped that the publication of these data may be similarly helpful to faculty members and personnel administrators at other institutions.

The data should also be helpful to high-school teachers and administrators who are preparing students for college entrance. The opinion is growing in various places that students planning

to go on to college work should, during their senior year in high school, be more adequately prepared for this different regimen which they will find on college campuses. The material presented in this article should be of assistance to high-school people who seek to co-operate with the college in helping students make a smooth transition from high school to college.

[Vol. XIII, No. 9]

A Technique for Determining Interest

By VIVIAN WEEDON
Directed by R. W. Tyler

[*Continued from the November 14 Issue*]

IN THE last issue of the EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN[1] the validity and reliability of the results of a technique for determining interest in leisure activities were discussed. For the convenience of those who wish to use this technique a method for constructing the test and scaling the activities will be here presented.

The first step is to prepare a list of activities that are to be tested. In preparing this list care should be taken that the activities be so expressed that the pupils who take the test will understand what is meant. For example, the teachers in one school wanted to know the interest of the pupils in "creative writing." The expression "creative writing" was not used by the pupils. Instead, they said that they wrote "original stories" or "original poems." On the test, the expressions "original stories" and "original poems" were used. After the list has been prepared the activities should be numbered for convenience. Thus the first activity on the list will become Activity 1; the second, Activity 2; and so on.

In the following discussion the number of activities to be tested will be called n. That is, if 12 activities are to be tested, n will equal 12; if 25 activities are to be tested n will equal 25, and so on. Next, draw up a sheet similar to Table I, on which are listed in order all the item numbers from 1 to $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$

[1] *See* pages 191–97.

With 12 activities this will, of course, be from 1 to 66. Place randomly on this table numbers which will indicate comparisons between each activity and every other activity as follows: opposite any one of the item numbers write "1 and 2" in the second column (*see* Item 18, Table I). Then opposite some other

TABLE I

FORM FOR INDICATING THE ACTIVITIES COMPARED WITHIN EACH ITEM

Item Number	Comparing Activities	Item Number	Comparing Activities
1		13	3 and 1
2		14	
3		15	
4		16	
5		17	
6		18	1 and 2
7		19	
8	1 and 4	20	
9		21	5 and 1
10		⋮	
11		$\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$	
12			

TABLE II

SUGGESTED TABULATION FORM FOR A TEST OF LEISURE INTERESTS

Activity	Pupil Number					Total	Scale Value	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Go to the movies	4	2	5	2	5	18	40	8
Go swimming	9	3	8	9	4	33	73	2
Play baseball	6	5	4	6	9	30	67	3
Go fishing	8	0	6	2	7	23	51	5
Go hiking	8	7	1	7	4	27	60	4
Go to a dance	2	4	8	5	0	19	42	7
Read a book	2	6	4	4	5	21	47	6
Play tennis	6	9	7	8	8	38	84	1
Read a magazine	0	1	2	0	2	5	11	10
Go to a concert	0	8	0	2	1	11	24	9
Total	45	45	45	45	45	225	.....	.....

item number place "3 and 1" (*see* Item 13, Table I). This time reverse the order placing 3 first and 1 second, indicating that here 1 is compared with 3. Continue until the first activity has been compared with every other activity reversing the order each time so that no activity will always appear first in the comparisons. Then beginning with Activities 2 and 3 compare Activity 2 with every other activity. Continue thus

until every activity has been compared with every other activity. If no mistakes have been made a comparison will be indicated for every item number.

With Table I completed and with the list of activities and their numbers, it is a simple task for a typist to finish the test construction. Items are better arranged one under the other, as

Go to the movies . . . . . ( )
Go swimming . . . . . ( )

than across, as

( ) Go to the movies . . . ( ) Go swimming.

Tabulation will be facilitated if the test is keyed. That is, each activity is given a key letter; Activity 1, "go to the movies," will be called "*a*"; Activity 2, "go swimming," will be called "*b*" and so forth. The test is set up as follows:

1. Go to the movies . . . . . *a*( )
Go swimming . . . . . *b*( )
2. Go to a dance . . . . . *f*( )
Go swimming . . . . . *b*( )
3. Read a book . . . . . *k*( )
Go to a dance . . . . . *f*( )

THE scale value of each activity is obtained merely by counting the number of times each activity was checked and dividing the number so obtained by the number of times it might have been checked. For example, if there were 12 activities, each activity would have appeared 11 times, as it would be compared with every other activity. If there were 30 tests each activity might, therefore, be checked 330 (30×11) times. Suppose activity *a*, "go to the movies," had been checked 291 times the scale value would be 291÷330 or .88.

A scheme of tabulation which gives a graphic presentation of the class as individuals and as a group is shown in Table II. Actual figures for a group of five girls are given here. The test for one pupil is tabulated in each column. On the table tally marks have been changed to numbers for ease in reproducing. The column totals are used only for checking the computations. This form of tabulation will take somewhat longer than the tabulation without regard to individuals, but it will prove more interesting. For example, it can be seen at a glance that although "go to a concert" is low in interest for the group, it is

high for Pupil 2. Similarly, Pupils 2 and 5 do not share the enthusiasm of the group for swimming. Hiking, which is fourth in rank for the group, is almost the lowest activity in interest for Pupil 3 and so forth. Since reliability for the individual has not yet been determined, these individual diagnoses must be interpreted with care. [Vol. XIII, No. 9]

Research in Elementary English

Two research studies of great interest to teachers and supervisers of elementary-school English are now available through the publications of the National Conference on Research in Elementary-School English. The first, *Research in Elementary English,* is a survey of the research program in elementary-school language at the University of Iowa, the most elaborate and significant research program in this field yet attempted. It is reported by Harry A. Greene, the director, who discusses fully the objectives, the means and methods, and the actual subtopics completed, under way, and contemplated. The report is augmented by critical commentaries by M. R. Trabue, Percival M. Symonds, Dora V. Smith, E. J. Ashbaugh, and Robert C. Pooley.

The second bulletin is *A Critical Summary of Selective Research in Elementary-School Composition, Language, and Grammar,* prepared by W. S. Guiler and E. A. Betts. Thirty-five important research studies are critically analyzed to determine the nature of the study, the problems, the limitations, the procedures, and the specific findings and conclusions. The introduction lists the criteria employed in the selection of the studies, and gives a most valuable list of deficiencies revealed in present research in elementary language. As a guide to future research in this field it is invaluable.

Appraisals of the studies by E. A. Betts, C. A. Yoakum, W. W. Thiesen, Philip A. Boyer, and Paul McKee were published in the *Elementary English Review,* September, 1934. The September *Review* contained also an annotated bibliography of other important research in elementary-school composition, language, and grammar.

Copies of these bulletins may be obtained by addressing Mr. C. C. Certain, secretary, 6505 Grand River Avenue, Detroit, Michigan. Price, 50 cents each, or less in quantities.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

What Are Motion Pictures For?

THREE theories of the function of the motion picture face us today: they may be classified as escape, diversion, and insight. Here are some statements made by those who hold to the escape theory: "We go to the movies for entertainment, not for education. . . . After a hard day's work at the office, I like to go to a movie and forget . . . Life is so full of tragedy, why see more of it at the movies?" The purpose of the motion picture, according to this theory, is to make you forget, not remember; to make you dream, not think; to get you farther away from the world in which you live, not closer to it; to flatter you, never to make you see yourself as you really are; to remove you from the important happenings of everyday life into the movie world of unimportant events. Iris Barry, in her book, *Let's Go to the Movies*, phrases the purpose of the motion picture in this way: "It is not intended to edify, it is not designed to instruct or move or thrill. It is primarily a something to banish care, even reflection, even consciousness. The cinema is a drug."

Art as escape—this will probably be the consensus of most persons when they consider the function of the movies. And how inadequate, how vicious such a conception really is. We know through the Payne Fund studies that motion pictures presumably used as escape material by adults do influence the information, attitudes, sleep, emotions, and conduct of children and youth. This temporary intellectual paralysis may become a habit. We cannot solve our problems by running away from them. Morphine may deaden pain, but it does not cure the disease.

As a substitute for escape, I suggest that the most important function of the motion picture should be to provide insight—an honest and accurate picture of the world in which we live. All of us have the problem of interpreting life around us. We cannot escape that. It seems reasonable, then, that in such a facing of facts we ought to try to get as many clues to the reality of life as possible. For example, just what does marriage mean? What life goals are really worth pursuing? Is romantic love

enough? What kind of life does the person in the slum live? What does it feel like to be evicted from your home and be compelled to move to foul, smelly, insanitary surroundings? What does it feel like to be "on relief"?

The typical modern motion picture touches such problems almost not at all, or if it does treat them, does so inaccurately. Here are some examples: work hard, save your money, bet successfully on a horse race, and everything will be fine (David Harum). Put a Fascist dictator in the White House, threaten foreign nations with our battleships, and your troubles are over (Gabriel over the White House). Or when you get discouraged about the gangsters and racketeers, do not worry—the high-school youngsters will organize a type of vigilant club and break up the racketeers' activities (This Day and Age).

My point is that we need a screen with vitality, a screen that tells the truth with consummate skill. The sadness of having lost a romantic lover can hardly compare with the tragedy in the life of the thirteen-year-old Ohio girl who tearfully sobs to her mother, after the family has been evicted and their household goods moved out into the street, "I just can't go back to school any more. I couldn't hold my head up. All the other girls will laugh at me."

This may be a serious way of looking at the motion-picture problem. It is true, however, that at the present time the world is in a rather serious fix. One does not need to be an alarmist to feel that there are possibilities of war in Europe and Asia. The approximately eleven million unemployed in the United States, including hundreds of thousands of young men and women, cannot easily be laughed off. Certainly, to look upon the motion picture merely as an escape device is not a way of solving these problems—and they must be solved.

Such a conception of the rôle of the motion picture, as I have outlined, however, does not exclude the use of the motion picture as an agency for diversion and refreshment. The utterly unreal world of fantasy, such as is portrayed in Three Little Pigs or in a slapstick comedy or musical play, has such value. Humor is a desirable solvent for life's problems. We do need to forget about our worries, but not through motion pictures which present alluring half-truths. None of us have anything

[*Continued on page 240*]

READINGS

PORTER, DWIGHT E. "A School Librarian Looks for a School Library," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXVIII (October, 1934), pp. 784–93, 819.

This article is a plea and strong argument for a more social-minded, child-centered school library. A library where every child spends part of every day and develops a library relationship which will carry over into adult life. Such a system built by close co-operation of a trained library staff and an understanding administration should and could form the core of the whole school.

MALONEY, JOSEPHINE. "A Study of Advertising," *Progressive Education*, XI (November, 1934), pp. 393–97.

The children of an elementary school, through publishing their own paper, became interested in advertisements. How the teacher utilized this interest to carry on a series of experiments into advertising claims is vividly described in this article.

GATES, ARTHUR I., AND BENNETT, CHESTER C. "The Daily versus the Weekly Lesson Plan in Spelling," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVIII (November, 1934), pp. 203–206.

The inconsistency of the results of this experiment conducted in Grades II to VI lead the authors to conclude that the features of the general method of teaching spelling matter little in comparison "with the ability of enabling pupils to learn and use the technique of learning to spell by themselves." Reports of other experiments supporting this conclusion are promised.

BIGELOW, ELIZABETH. "School Progress of Under-Age Children," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXV (November, 1934), pp. 186–92.

This study, based on one group of 80 children who entered Grade I before they were chronologically six years of age and another group of 39 children who entered when they were chronologically between six years and six years four months of age, furnishes some definite conclusions that age at entrance is quite a definite factor in school success. A child with an *IQ* of 110 who enters school under six years of age has small chance of being successful. The under-age child with an *IQ* of over 110, however, has a fairly good chance. The figures might indicate that the higher the intelligence quotient, the better the chance of success, but reliance must not be placed on this alone; social, emotional, and physical maturity must be considered.

Books to Read

PEARMAN, WILLIAM IRVIN. *Support of State Educational Programs*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. viii+141 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 591)

This volume represents a detailed and comprehensive study of the respons-

ibility of the state in financing educational activities and the essential policies governing the provision of state revenue for the maintenance of education. The study presents the types of educational activities supported by state revenues and the general state policies regulating the support of education in each of the separate states. In addition, a careful analysis is made of typical cases such as New York, Missouri, and Arkansas.

The findings of this study are based upon the actual practices in operation in the various states. The author recommends, in concluding, that educators who desire adequacy and continuity of financial support should encourage reforms in state budgetary procedure, and in the distribution of state school funds. This study should be read carefully by all persons connected with providing state school revenues and with establishing policies to be pursued in making these revenues available for expenditure.

D. H. Sutton
Ohio State Department of Education

Wilson, Howard E. *The Fusion of Social Studies in Junior High Schools: A Critical Analysis.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1933. 211 pp. (Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XXI)

The author has performed a most valuable service for teachers in the social studies by presenting them with an eagle's eye view of the field of conflict now raging over fusion. The survey covers such points as the practice of fusion, the theory of fusion, historical background of the fusion controversy, fusion and the selection of functional curriculum content, fusion and the organization of subject-matter for teaching purposes.

After investigating the problem, Mr. Wilson presents his conclusions on the limited usefulness of fusion. In practice, he states that fusion has helped emphasize cultural concepts for the different subjects, but that the subjects possess greater educational possibilities, and are favored by teacher preparation and scheduling. Further fusion is not any more a panacea than specific subjects.

Many teachers will differ violently with Mr. Wilson, but he has aided all teachers by beginning a critical evaluation of fusion in the social studies. It is to be remembered that integration does not occur only in a fusion course, but may also be gained by relating separate courses to each other.

Arthur Henry Moehlman

Breed, Frederick S. *Classroom Organization and Management.* New York: World Book Company, 1933. xvi+472 pp.

This textbook is the product obtained after four complete revisions of the materials in a course on classroom management at the University of Chicago. Many problems of the classroom teacher are treated in view of general principles derived from accumulated evidence.

In the chapter on homogeneous grouping, various bases commonly used in grouping pupils for the purposes of instruction are discussed, and the results of investigations presented. The author says that probably no single device will solve the problem of adjusting instruction to individual differences. Providing students with a variety of kinds of learning opportunities and differentiated learning materials for the objective of teaching to be reached is a promising hypothesis for more complete study.

The chapter on constructing new-type examinations is based on the thinking which has followed the criticisms of the essay examinations. These criticisms were that the essay examinations are subjective in scoring and unreliable. Much evidence has been brought in support of the criticisms. Test technicians have consequently emphasized these two important characteristics of a good examination and have developed the new-type examinations. Although by using new-type examinations, objectivity and reliability have been improved, unfortunately due regard has not been given to the essential characteristics of an examination; does it give the kind of evidence of achievement which we are trying to collect? Recent thinking about examinations is concerned with this essential feature. When the valid kind of evidence of achievement in an objective of teaching is obtained, short-cut new-type examinations can often be devised which give similar results and are more practical to use.

The last chapter is devoted to the social behavior of pupils and crime. This problem is especially important at the present time and is receiving attention by the United States Senate under the leadership of Royal S. Copeland. Experiments are being planned to try out methods of instruction along this line.

F. P. FRUTCHEY

YOAKUM, GERALD A., AND SIMPSON, GILKEY S. *An Introduction to Teaching and Learning.* New York: Macmillan Company, 1934. x+498 pp.

The title of this book is not misleading. It is an introduction to the principles, methods, and psychology of education. It is an admirable attempt to present these fields in such a way as to show their positive relationships. As such, the book should be valuable in a professional survey course. The contents is divided into five major parts: "Fundamental Principles," "Techniques and Activities of Teaching," "Activities and Techniques of Learning," "The Media of Teaching and Learning," and "Teaching and Learning by Wholes." There is an excellent list of study questions and a bibliography at the end of each chapter.

The authors apparently encountered obstacles to completeness, for to cover with any degree of adequacy all of the topics touched upon would be impossible in a volume of reasonable proportions. Accordingly, one finds the treatment of the health, emotions, and social psychology of the child in relation to the learning situation almost totally lacking. It is probably for the same reason that little reference is made to recent experimental data which bear so directly on the topics discussed. The latter omissions are not so serious if the authors' manual, *Directed Study and Observation of Teaching* is used in conjunction with this book.

MAURICE E. TROYER

CLEMENSEN, JESSIE W. *Study Outlines in Physics.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. ix+154 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 553)

The study outlines in physics were prepared as materials for individual instruction and to supplement classroom teaching. They were designed to illustrate the application of physics to common phenomena in life and to enrich students' understanding of these phenomena. For example, one of the problems in the study outlines is that of buoyancy. Several questions are asked which can be answered by using the principles of buoyancy in explaining these

phenomena. In another problem questions are asked on the use of levers in maintaining the stability or equilibrium of a body, as a vase, an automobile, the human body in sitting and walking. The exercises should be so constructed that they make the students cognizant of the fact that they are applying the principles and facts of physics.

The outlines were experimentally evaluated by using groups of students in nine high schools. The experimental and control groups were paired pupil by pupil on the basis of a final score for each pupil predicted from several of his scores on preliminary tests. All of the groups of students who had the outlines made higher scores on the final test than the corresponding groups who did not have the outlines.

The results also illustrate that this sort of learning opportunity has more appeal to some students than to others. There are various methods of learning. Some are more effective with some individuals and others with other individuals. By discovering the methods most effective with individual pupils and developing necessary materials, it is possible to adapt the methods of instruction to individual differences.

F. P. FRUTCHEY

* * *

Editorial Comment

[*Continued from page 236*]

but praise for such entertaining and diverting pictures as The Gay Divorcee, One Night of Love, and others of this type. They provide no escape, do not try to present reality, but aim only to provide an hour or two of diverting entertainment.

The fundamental problem, then, is whether the arts shall provide escape, diversion, or insight. Shall our arts focus with dramatic intensity on the realities of current life (and idealism is such a reality), or shall we continue to demand sugar and spice and everything nice—the fare of the emotionally immature?

This is not the posing of an unimportant theoretical problem. A significantly large number of children throughout the United States saw a movie last week. Were they merely killing time, were they getting a better understanding of people, events, and places, or were they collecting a mélange of misinformation, racial prejudice, individualistic life goals, and distorted values?

EDGAR DALE

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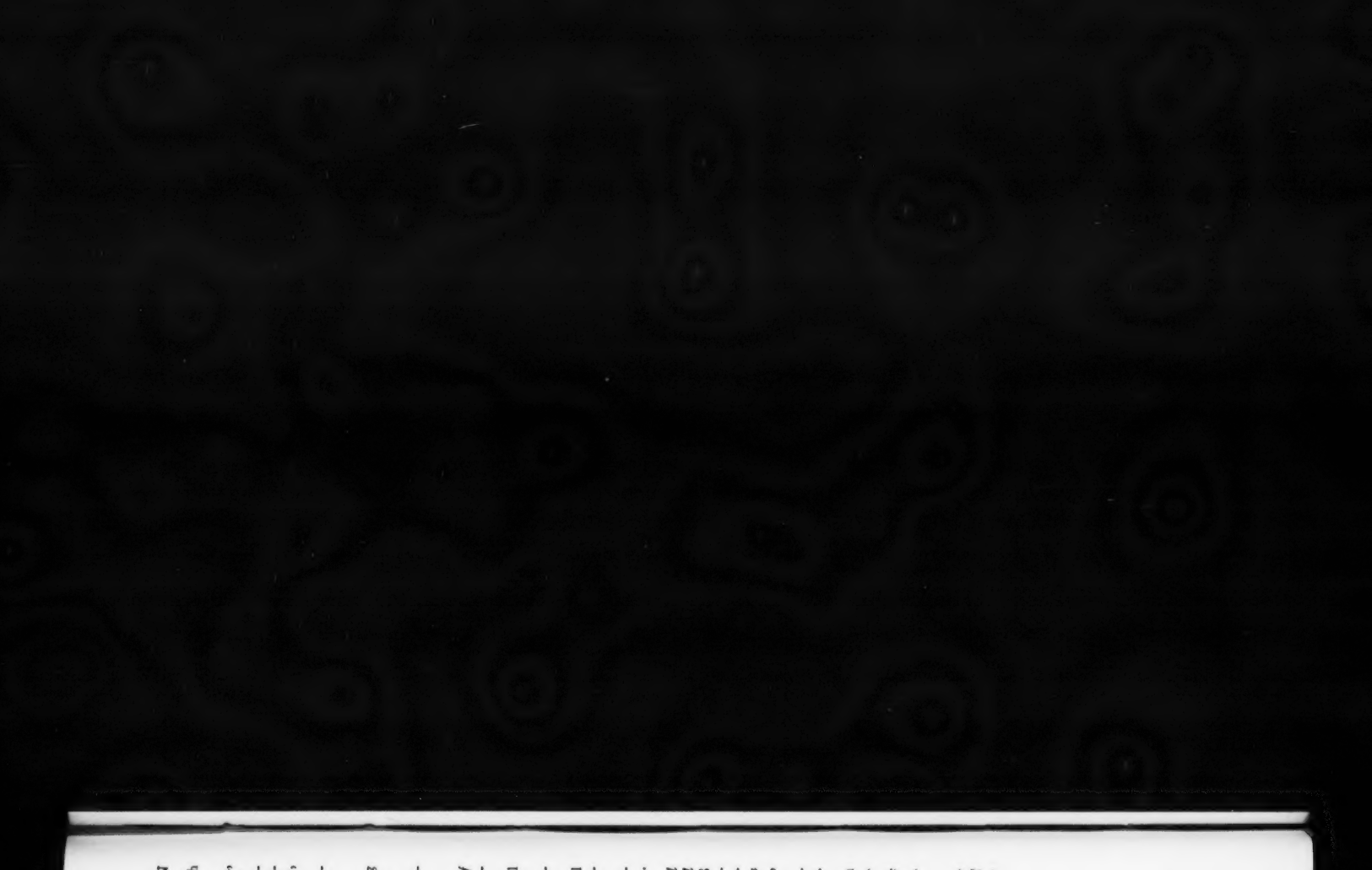
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